



Photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ on Cu₂O-loaded Zn-Cr layered double hydroxides

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ABSTRACT

A series of Cu₂O-loaded Zn-Cr layered double hydroxides (LDHs) was prepared via an *in situ* reduction process from Cu-Zn-Cr ternary LDHs and applied to the photoreduction of CO₂. The formation of Cu₂O nanoparticles and the preservation of the LDH structure was confirmed by X-ray diffraction and transmission electron microscopy. Among the loaded LDHs, the 0.1Cu₂O@Zn_{1.8}Cr LDH exhibited optimal activity for the conversion of CO₂ into CO in pure water and was superior to both the corresponding Cu-Zn-Cr ternary LDH and pristine Zn₂Cr LDHs. In addition, the production of CO was further promoted by increasing the solubility of CO₂ using a nano-bubble solution instead of pure water. The loaded Cu₂O nanoparticles probably function as effective electron traps, promoting charge separation and providing active sites for CO₂ reduction.

1. Introduction

Layered double hydroxides (LDHs, $[M_1^{2+}_x M_2^{3+}_x (\text{OH})_2]^{x+} (A^{n-})_{x/n} \cdot m\text{H}_2\text{O}$), a series of stacked layered clay materials, have aroused widespread attention for their unique and selective photoreduction properties, converting CO₂ into CO via a two-electron process under ultraviolet irradiation. The basic structure of LDHs includes cationic brucite-like host layers consisting of coordinated MO₆ octahedrons with shared edges, and anionic guest species, commonly CO₃²⁻, in the interlayer regions to compensate for the insufficient charge and yield electric neutrality [1–3]. Izumi et al. [4] reported that CO₂ was photocatalytically reduced to methanol and CO by using H₂ as a reductant on Zn-Cu-Al and Zn-Cu-Ga LDHs. Teramura et al. [5] achieved the photocatalytic conversion of CO₂ into CO and O₂ in pure water using a series of LDHs and found that Cl⁻ can improve the activity and selectivity of the LDH by acting as an effective hole scavenger in Ni-based LDHs [6–8].

Although many kinds of LDH photocatalysts have been developed, there is still a chasm between expectation and actual performance. Surface decoration on the photocatalyst with a cocatalyst is believed to be important to achieve enhanced photocatalytic activity because the cocatalyst not only extracts the photogenerated charge carriers but also provides reaction sites for gas evolution [9,10]. Previously, we have developed noble metal (Pt, Pd, and Au)-loaded LDHs that show improved CO₂ photoreduction performance, but their CO formation rates

are limited [11]. Besides, LDHs belong to amphoteric hydroxides are chemically unstable under the strongly acidic and basic conditions used during noble metal cocatalyst loading. Therefore, the development of a cost effective and easily synthesized cocatalyst is a significant but challenging task for the theoretical study and practical use of LDH-derived photocatalysts.

For CO₂ photoreduction, compared to noble metals, which are extensively used in water splitting reactions, copper is a cheap and abundant element and an excellent candidate for highly efficient cocatalysts. Tseng et al. [12] prepared a copper-loaded TiO₂, and methanol was favorably produced on the catalysts in an aqueous CO₂ solution under UV irradiation. In this system, Cu^I was suggested to be the active site. Zhai et al. [13] developed a Pt@Cu₂O binary cocatalyst with a core-shell structure and proposed that the Cu₂O shell provided sites for the preferential conversion of CO₂ to CH₄ and CO. Miyauchi et al. [14,15] discovered amorphous Cu^{II} nanoclusters that function as efficient cocatalysts for both the electrocatalytic and photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ to CO. The grafting of Cu^{II} nanoclusters onto exfoliated layered niobate and SrTiO₃ nanorods promoted CO generation. The formation of a Cu^{II}-Cu^I intermediate was detected and considered to be the reason for the improved photocatalytic activity. In addition, Hsu et al. [16] confirmed Cu₂O can accept and accumulate electrons from the semiconductor in a heterostructure system, revealing Cu₂O is qualified for the multi-electron process in CO₂ reduction.

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Copper oxides can be synthesized by soft chemical methods; for example, Cu₂O particles can be easily obtained by the chemical reduction of Cu^{II} species using reducing agents such as reducing sugars, ascorbic acid, hydroxylamine hydrochloride, and hydrazine hydrate [17–20]. Cu-containing ternary LDHs, with Cu(OH)₆ units incorporated in the layered structure, are reasonable precursors to prepare Cu₂O. Interestingly, only the highly dispersed Cu²⁺ ions are separated out from the host layers via the *in situ* reduction process, and the remainder of the bimetallic ions maintain the basic structure of the LDH. Komarneni et al. [21] reported the synthesis of Cu₂O-MgAl LDH composites from Mg-Cu-Al LDHs by such a method. The nano-sized Cu₂O particles acted as photocatalysts for the degradation of orange II under visible light, but the function of the Mg-Al LDHs is that of a supporter and dispersant. The synergetic effect of Cu₂O and photocatalytically active LDH species containing transition metals has not been confirmed. It is expected that dispersed Cu₂O nanoparticles synthesized by an *in situ* reduction method can serve as cocatalysts to enhance the CO₂ reduction ability of LDH photocatalysts effectively. Zn-Cr LDHs are rising stars among these materials because of their excellent light harvesting properties and multi-functionality for various kinds of photocatalytic reaction [11,22–26]. Furthermore, the similar ionic radii of Cu²⁺ (73 pm) and Zn²⁺ (74 pm) allowed Cu(OH)₆ units to be easily embedded into the Zn-Cr LDH lattice [27,28].

In the present work, an *in situ* reduction approach was applied in the preparation of Cu₂O-decorated Zn-Cr LDHs from Cu-Zn-Cr ternary LDHs, and the Cu₂O loading enhanced the photocatalytic performance for the reduction of CO₂ based on comparative studies with a closed aqueous system under UV-light irradiation. A possible electron pathway during the photocatalytic reaction is also discussed in this paper.

2. Experimental

2.1. Catalyst preparation

ZnCl₂ was purchased from Kanto Chemical Co., Inc., and the other chemicals were commercially available reagents from Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Ltd. Ultrapure water was produced by Milli-Q® Advantage A10 water purification system. The bare Zn₂Cr binary and Cu_{2x}Zn_{2-2x}Cr ternary LDH ($x = 0.05, 0.10, 0.20$, and 0.40) were synthesized by the co-precipitation method [29]. In detail, $20 \times \text{mmol}$ ($x = 0, 0.05, 0.10, 0.20$, and 0.40) of CuCl₂·2H₂O, $20 - 20 \times \text{mmol}$ of ZnCl₂, and 10 mmol of CrCl₃·6H₂O were dissolved in 15 mL water to form a solution (Solution A). A mixed aqueous solution (Solution B) of NaOH–Na₂CO₃ (2:1 molar ratio, $[\text{Na}^+] = 4 \text{ mol/L}$) was prepared. Solution A and Solution B were added dropwise into 20 mL of ultrapure water via variable-flow peristaltic pumps (Fisher Scientific) with rapid stirring to form purple or blue slurries. The pH was maintained at 8.9–9.1 by controlling the speed of addition. After co-precipitation, the slurry was aged in a water bath at 333 K for 24 h . Then the precipitate was centrifuged and washed with water repeatedly (at least three times). The LDH powder was obtained by grinding the precipitate after drying at 353 K in an oven overnight.

Cu₂O-loaded Zn-Cr LDHs were synthesized by performing the *in situ* reduction of the Cu_{2x}Zn_{2-2x}Cr LDH ($x = 0.05, 0.10, 0.20$, and 0.40) precursor, which was prepared as described previously. Note that the precursor should be washed but not dried. The wet precipitate was dispersed in 50 mL water, and added dropwise to 50 mL of a 0.1 mol/L ascorbic acid aqueous solution of which the pH had been adjusted to 8.9–9.1 with a NaOH–Na₂CO₃ mixed solution (2:1 molar ratio, $[\text{Na}^+] = 4 \text{ mol/L}$). The suspension was continuously stirred for 2 h at room temperature. Then the product was centrifuged and washed with water repeatedly (at least three times). The powder sample was obtained by grinding the precipitate after drying at 353 K in an oven overnight. The as-prepared Cu₂O loaded LDHs are denoted ‘ $x\text{Cu}_2\text{O}@Zn_{2-2x}\text{Cr LDH}$ ’, where $x = 0.05, 0.10, 0.20$, or 0.40 .

2.2. Characterization

The crystallographic phases of the as-prepared samples were investigated by X-ray diffraction analysis (XRD) using a Rigaku Ultima IV diffractometer with Cu K α radiation ($\lambda_{\text{K}\alpha 1} = 1.540598 \text{ \AA}$, $\lambda_{\text{K}\alpha 2} = 1.544426 \text{ \AA}$, $\text{K}\alpha 2/\text{K}\alpha 1 = 0.4970$) and a D/teX Ultra detector. Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra of the samples were measured using a JEOL JIR-7000 at room temperature in the range of $400\text{--}4000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. Samples were prepared in KBr pellets, and the spectrum of an empty KBr pellet was used as a reference. The morphology of the catalysts was observed using a Hitachi H8100 transmission electron microscope (TEM). The N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms at 77 K were determined using a BELSORP 18 gas sorption analyzer. The optical absorption properties of powders in the wavelength range of $200\text{--}800 \text{ nm}$ were recorded using the diffuse reflectance (DRS) method and a Hitachi U-3310 UV–vis spectrophotometer.

2.3. Photocatalytic reaction

The photocatalytic properties for CO₂ reduction were evaluated by liquid-phase reaction under UV irradiation if not stated otherwise. In detail, 200 mg of catalyst was dispersed in 50 mL pure water in a glass reactor with 290 mL dead volume covered by a quartz plate. After being degassed by a vacuum pump for 10 min , CO₂ gas was bubbled through the water and purged into the reactor for 15 min . Then, the sealed reactor was placed beneath one of the two branched guidance fibers connected to a 200-W Hg-Xe lamp (LA-310UV, Hayashi Watch-works) and irradiated for 24 h . The yields of carbon-containing compounds were detected by a gas chromatograph with a flame ionization detector (GC-FID; Shimadzu GC-2014AF equipped with 1-m ShinCarbon ST 50/80 column and a methanizer unit). The yield of H₂ was detected by a chromatograph with thermal conductivity detector (GC-TCD; Shimadzu GC-2014AE equipped with a 6-m ShinCarbon ST 50/80 column). The control experiments were performed by using Ar gas instead of CO₂ gas under the same reaction conditions. The effect of additives on the photocatalytic properties was investigated by using 0.1 mol/L aqueous Na₂SO₄, Na₂CO₃, and NaCl solutions and a commercial CO₂ ultra-fine bubble (UFB) solution instead of pure water. To verify the oxygen production and distinguish it from the carbon source, isotope tests were performed in a 1-cm quartz cuvette with a threaded cap. The isotope reagents were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Co., LLC. Briefly, 50 mg $0.1\text{Cu}_2\text{O}@Zn_{1.8}\text{Cr LDH}$ was impregnated with 1 mL H₂¹⁸O, and ¹³CO₂ gas was bubbled through the suspension for 20 min . Then the cuvette was sealed and irradiated with UV light for 24 h . The gas in the headspace before, during, and after irradiation was analyzed by a gas chromatography–mass spectrometry system (GC–MS; Shimadzu GCMS-QP2010).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Catalyst characterization

Fig. 1(a) shows the XRD patterns of all the as-prepared samples including bare Zn₂Cr LDH, bare Cu₂O, Cu-Zn-Cr ternary LDHs, and Cu₂O-loaded Zn-Cr LDHs. Characteristic of stacked layered structures, intense diffraction peaks around $2\theta = 11.6^\circ$ and 23.3° were present in all the LDH samples and were assigned to the (003) and (006) lattice planes, respectively. The d_{003} value represents the interlayer spacing, and parameter c can be calculated using the equation $c = 3d_{003}$ because typical Zn-based LDHs belong to the 3R polytype [30]. The calculated results for parameter c are in agreement with those of CO₃²⁻-type LDHs reported previously [31].

Fig. 1(b) shows the detailed scan from 58 to 62° , containing the diffraction peaks corresponding to the (110) and (113) planes, of which the position depends on the radius of metal ions within the host layers. The parameter a , which is also the cation–cation distance, can be

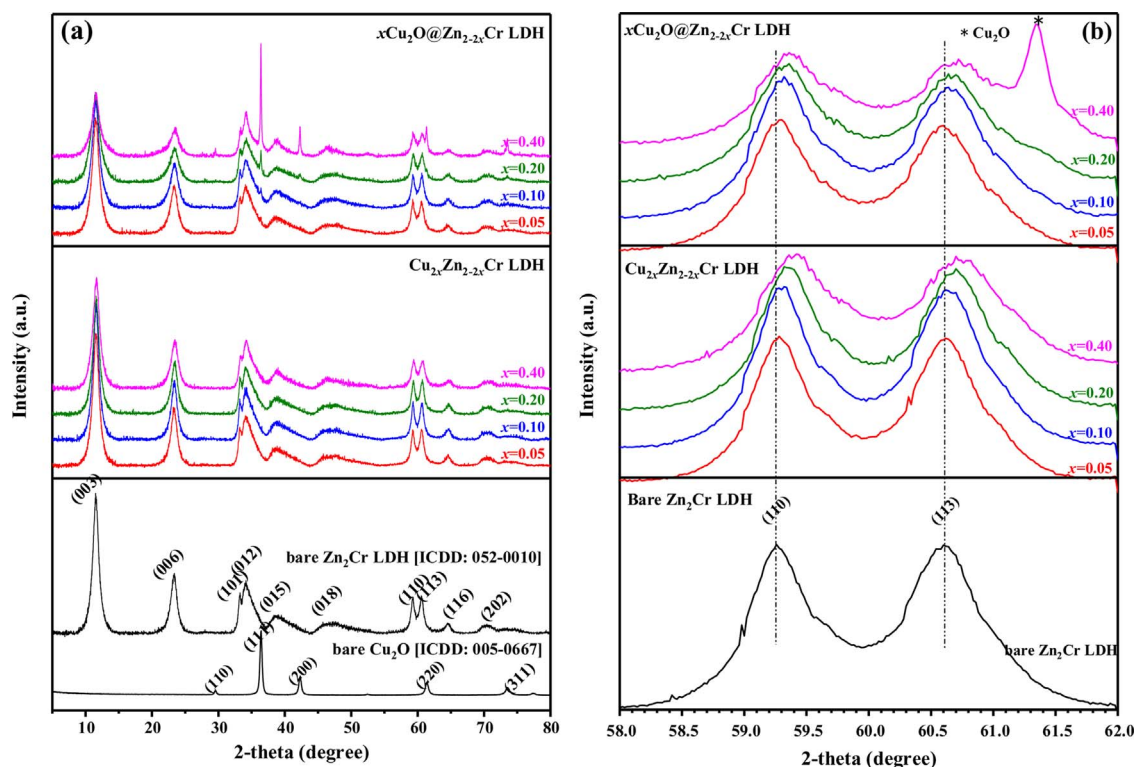


Fig. 1. XRD patterns of the as-prepared Cu_2O -loaded Zn-Cr LDHs, Cu-Zn-Cr LDHs, bare Zn_2Cr LDH, and bare Cu_2O : (a) wide scan: $2\theta = 2\text{--}80^\circ$ and (b) detailed scan: $2\theta = 58\text{--}62^\circ$.

calculated from the equation $a = 2d_{110}$. In Cu-Zn-Cr ternary LDHs, with increasing $\text{Cu}^{2+}/\text{M}^{2+}$ substitution (x), the positions of the (110) and (113) peaks shifted to wider angles gradually, indicating the shrinkage of a . This result demonstrates the smooth incorporation of Cu^{2+} into the LDH host layers. Because the ion radius of Cu^{2+} is 1 pm smaller than Zn^{2+} and because the Jahn–Teller effect of $\text{Cu}(\text{OH})_6$ octahedral units can further shorten the Cu–O bond length on the xy plane, the incorporation of Cu^{2+} is accompanied by a decrease in the cation–cation distance [27,32]. A schematic diagram of structural and composition changes to the LDHs before and after the *in situ* reduction is shown in Fig. S1 [33]. The Cu_2O phase formed after the Cu-Zn-Cr LDHs were reacted with ascorbic acid, and the amount of Cu_2O increased with increasing x , as did the crystallinity. In addition, the LDH phases remain after the reactions. However, a large amount of Cu^{2+} was separated out, and the intensity of the diffraction peaks decreased and became broad, reflecting the decrease in the crystallinity of the LDH phase. After reduction, the (110) and (113) peaks attributed to LDH phases were generally still coincided with the reflections of the ternary LDH matrixes. Because Cu^{2+} and the interlayer counter ion CO_3^{2-} have the same valence number, LDHs can maintain the charge balance as well as the crystal structure by dissociating a Cu^{2+} and a CO_3^{2-} simultaneously during the *in situ* reduction. Lattice defects of LDH backbones possibly generated in the process.

To confirm how the separating out of Cu^{2+} affected the surface area of the photocatalyst, the N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms of $0.1\text{Cu}_2\text{O}@Z\text{n}_{1.8}\text{Cr}$ LDH and the corresponding $\text{Cu}_{0.2}\text{Zn}_{1.8}\text{Cr}$ LDH were measured and plotted, as shown in Fig. S2. Both samples show hysteresis loops typical of mesoporous materials, but the adsorption volume (V_a) at the same p/p_0 of $0.1\text{Cu}_2\text{O}@Z\text{n}_{1.8}\text{Cr}$ is obviously lower in the high-pressure area. Using the Kelvin equation, we found that the pore size decreased slightly after the *in situ* reduction. The specific surface area calculated by the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method before and after the *in situ* reduction were 133 and $123\text{ m}^2\text{ g}^{-1}$, respectively. Although the specific surface area decreased with increasing separation of Cu^{2+} , the value is still within the normal range of LDHs [2].

As shown in the TEM images in Fig. 2, the samples have a morphology consisting of accumulated sheet-like structures. The shape of the brucite-like layers is maintained after the *in situ* reduction, but some independent particles are observed. The high resolution TEM images D2 and E2 show the distinct lattice fringes with a d -spacing of 0.29 nm, which is corresponding to the (110) lattice planes of cubic crystal structured Cu_2O [19,34]. The Cu_2O particle size at both $x = 0.10$ and $x = 0.20$ is lower than 30 nm, while agglomerated particles were observed at $x = 0.40$. With a lower Cu content, the growth of Cu_2O nuclei in the reduction reaction was restricted because of the surrounding brucite-like layers; consequently, the particles were quite small and highly dispersed in the LDH frameworks. In contrast, with an excessive Cu content, large numbers of Cu_2O nuclei separated out in the reduction reaction, gathering and growing into large crystals.

Fig. 3 shows the FT-IR spectra of several representative samples. All the spectra show broad and intense bands at about 3400 cm^{-1} , attributed to the stretching modes of the hydroxyl groups in the LDH host layers and interlayer water molecules. The band at 1640 cm^{-1} is assigned to the bending vibration of water. According to the symmetry group characteristics of the carbonate ion, the bands observed around 1350 and 770 cm^{-1} are, respectively, the ν_3 antisymmetric stretch and ν_2 out-of-plane bend [35]. In the low-frequency region, the fingerprints are attributed to the lattice vibrations from the LDH host layers. A weak band was also observed at 630 cm^{-1} for the $0.4\text{Cu}_2\text{O}@Z\text{n}_{1.2}\text{Cr}$ LDH sample, and this is assigned to the Cu–O lattice vibration from the loaded Cu_2O particles [17,34]. The adsorbed organic contaminants derived from ascorbic acid in the *in situ* reduction process had a negative effect on the accuracy of CO_2 photoreduction performance tests because they can easily decompose to C1 compounds under UV irradiation. However, here, the absence of stretching vibration bands corresponding to carbon–hydrogen ($2960\text{--}2850\text{ cm}^{-1}$) and carbonyl bonds ($1820\text{--}1650\text{ cm}^{-1}$) in the spectra suggests that the alkaline reaction condition effectively suppressed the ion exchange adsorption of ascorbic-acid-derived species on the LDHs [36].

Fig. 4 shows the UV–vis diffuse reflection spectra of some representative LDHs before and after the *in situ* reduction. The spectra

Before *in situ* reduction ($\text{Cu}_{2x}\text{Zn}_{2-2x}\text{Cr LDH}$)

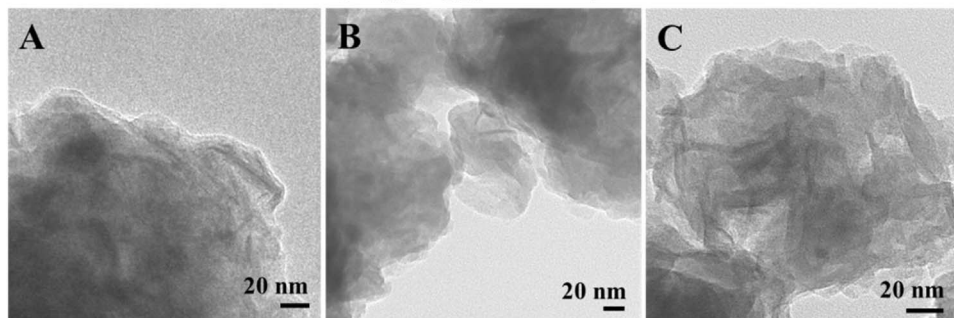


Fig. 2. TEM images of $\text{Cu}_{2x}\text{Zn}_{2-2x}\text{Cr LDH}$: A: $x = 0.10$; B: $x = 0.20$; C: $x = 0.40$, and the corresponding $x\text{Cu}_2\text{O}@Zn_{2-2x}\text{Cr LDH}$: D1, D2: $x = 0.10$; E1, E2, E3: $x = 0.20$, where E3 is the image of two dimensional fast Fourier transform; and F: $x = 0.40$.

After *in situ* reduction ($x\text{Cu}_2\text{O}@Zn_{2-2x}\text{Cr LDH}$)

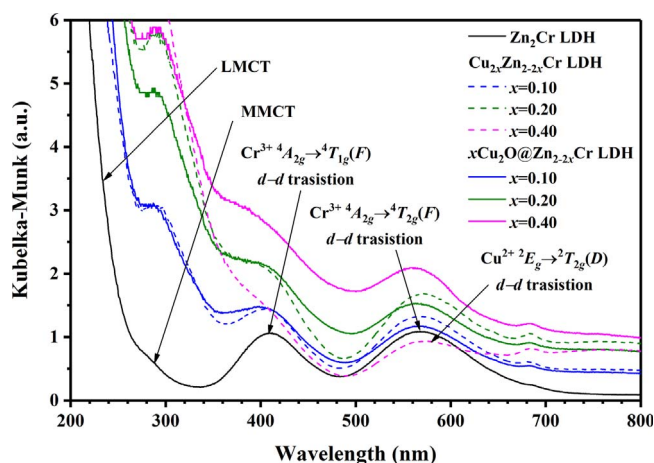
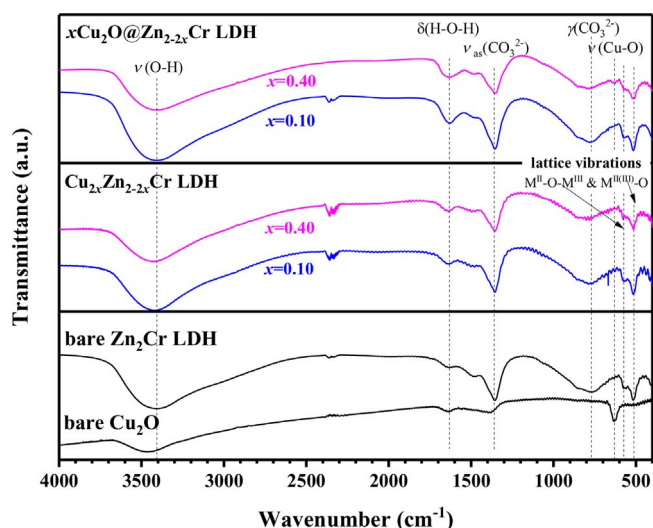
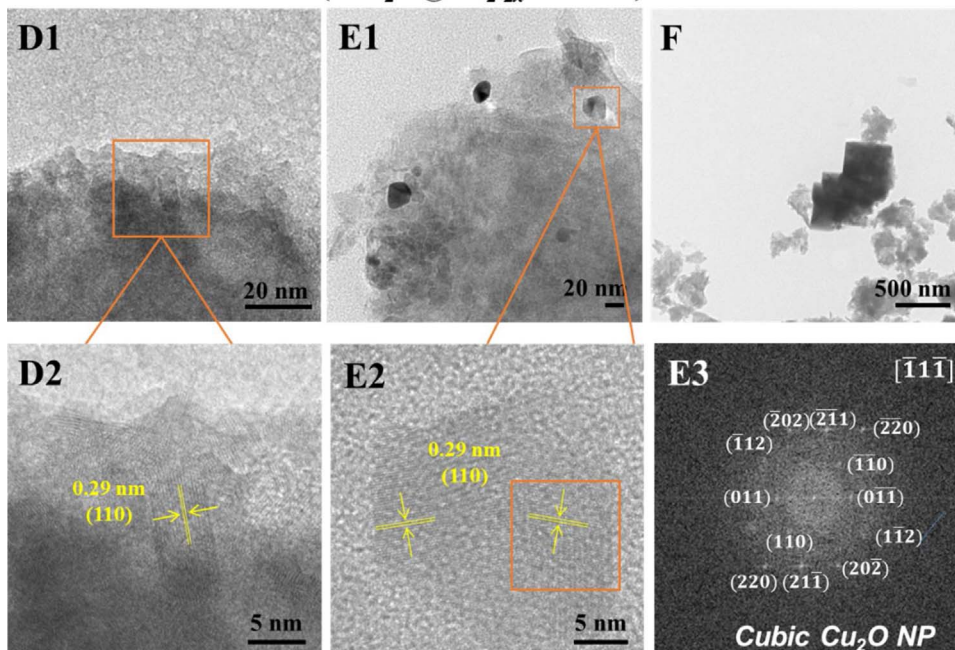


Fig. 3. FT-IR spectra of representative $\text{Cu}_{2x}\text{Zn}_{2-2x}\text{Cr LDHs}$ ($x = 0.10, 0.40$), the corresponding $x\text{Cu}_2\text{O}@Zn_{2-2x}\text{Cr LDH}$ ($x = 0.10, 0.40$), bare $\text{Zn}_2\text{Cr LDH}$, and bare Cu_2O .

were converted using the Kubelka–Munk function ($F(R)$) from the reflectivity data. In the UV region, the pristine $\text{Zn}_2\text{Cr LDH}$ displays the intrinsic absorption bands, which are attributed to the ligand–metal

Fig. 4. UV–Vis DRS spectra of $\text{Cu}_{2x}\text{Zn}_{2-2x}\text{Cr LDH}$ ($x = 0.10, 0.20, 0.40$), and the corresponding $x\text{Cu}_2\text{O}@Zn_{2-2x}\text{Cr LDH}$ ($x = 0.10, 0.20, 0.40$).

charge transfer (LMCT) from the O $2p$ orbital to the Zn $4s$ and Cr $3d(e_g)$ orbitals. The absorption band at 264–318 nm in the spectrum is attributed to metal–metal charge transfer (MMCT) from Cr $3d(t_{2g})$ to Zn $4s$ [22,37]. The absorption edge observed at 318 nm is corresponding to an approximate band gap (E_g) of 3.9 eV. In the visible-light region, the

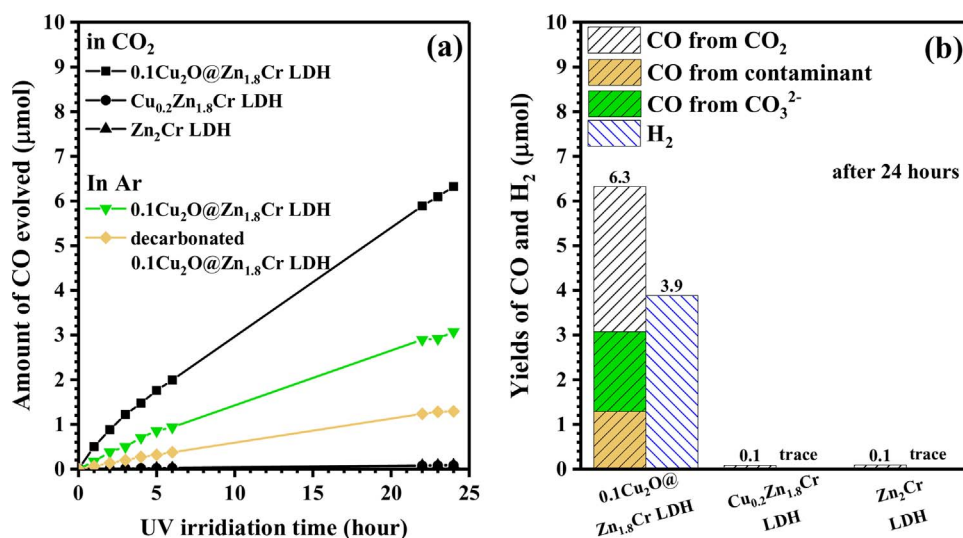


Fig. 5. (a) Time course of CO evolution in CO₂ or Ar and (b) total amount of CO and H₂ generated after 24 h for the photocatalytic reaction in pure water over 0.1Cu₂O@Zn_{1.8}Cr LDH, decarbonated 0.1Cu₂O@Zn_{1.8}Cr LDH, Cu_{0.2}Zn_{1.8}Cr LDH, and bare Zn₂Cr LDH.

adsorption peaks at 410 and 570 nm correspond to the $^4A_{2g} \rightarrow ^4T_{1g}(F)$ and $^4A_{2g} \rightarrow ^4T_{2g}(F)$ $d-d$ transitions of the Cr³⁺ ions, respectively [38]. The absorption spectra of the Cu-Zn-Cr ternary LDHs from 200 to 500 nm are complex but mainly consist of overlapped LMCT, MMCT, and Cr³⁺ $^4A_{2g} \rightarrow ^4T_{1g}(F)$ $d-d$ transitions. The overlap of the Cr³⁺ $^4A_{2g} \rightarrow ^4T_{2g}(F)$ and Cu²⁺ $^2E_g \rightarrow ^2T_{2g}(D)$ $d-d$ transitions redshifts the peaks around 570 nm gradually with increasing Cu²⁺ content [39]. After the *in situ* reduction, the change of absorption characteristics in the UV region is attributed to the overlap of the intrinsic absorption of Cu₂O. Around 570 nm, the influence of the Cu²⁺ $d-d$ transition disappeared, and the absorption peaks around 570 nm were blue-shifted to the same positions as those of the pristine Zn₂Cr LDH. This indicates that Cu²⁺ is not involved in the band structure of the LDHs after its reduction to Cu₂O.

3.2. Photocatalytic performance

Fig. 5 shows a comparison of the photocatalytic activity among 0.1Cu₂O@Zn_{1.8}Cr LDH, ternary Cu_{0.2}Zn_{1.8}Cr LDH, and the pristine Zn₂Cr LDH under a CO₂ atmosphere. The LDHs not loaded with Cu₂O exhibited limited activity. The CO released after 24 h was approximately 0.1 μmol, and a trace amount of H₂ in the pure water was observed. In contrast, 0.1Cu₂O@Zn_{1.8}Cr LDH exhibited a CO yield of up to 6.3 μmol, and 3.9 μmol of H₂ was generated simultaneously. To identify the activation effect of the Cu₂O particles as narrow bandgap semiconductors, 0.1Cu₂O@Zn_{1.8}Cr LDH was also irradiated with visible light using a 200-W Xe lamp (LA-410UV, Hayashi Watch-works) with a 400-nm cutoff filter (SC 40, Fujifilm Corporation). The generation of H₂ and CO was not observed. Thus, the light harvesting material for the photocatalytic reaction is LDH, whereas Cu₂O tends to act as the co-catalyst, accelerating the reaction. A series of control tests was carried out to verify whether CO is derived from CO₂ by repeating the UV irradiation of 0.1Cu₂O@Zn_{1.8}Cr LDH under an Ar atmosphere. Considering that the interlayer CO₃²⁻ ions are also a possible carbon source because they can transform to CO₂ via hydrolysis, a portion of the 0.1Cu₂O@Zn_{1.8}Cr LDH was decarbonized via an ion-exchange process in a NaH₂PO₄ aqueous solution prior to the irradiation tests in Ar. The amount of CO generated on the CO₃²⁻-type and decarbonized samples were 3.1 and 1.3 μmol, respectively (Fig. 5(b)). This indicates that almost 80% of the CO production is assigned to the reduction of CO₂ but not the incomplete oxidation product of the surface-adsorbed organic contaminants. The isotope analysis result shows the obvious and ever-increasing mass spectra peaks of ¹⁸O₂ ($m/z = 36$) and ¹³CO ($m/z = 29$) after irradiating the 0.1Cu₂O@Zn_{1.8}Cr LDH impregnated with H₂¹⁸O under a ¹³CO₂ atmosphere with UV light (Fig. 6). We confirmed that the

photogenerated electrons reduced CO₂ to CO and the holes oxidized water to oxygen simultaneously. Evidently, after the modification of Cu₂O nanoparticles on the LDH surface, the photocatalytic performance was enhanced significantly. This result indicates that Cu₂O can serve as an electron trap, reducing the recombination of photogenerated electrons and holes and increasing the photocatalytic efficiency. Meanwhile, Cu₂O nanoparticles are probably quite sensitive to CO₂, and they can function as reaction sites, promoting the conversion of CO₂ to CO (Fig. 7).

The effect of the Cu content on the photocatalytic activity is shown in Fig. 8. All the Cu₂O-decorated samples showed activity for the reduction of CO₂ to CO, accompanied by water splitting, generating H₂ as a side reaction. The production of CO increased linearly with the irradiation time. The 0.1Cu₂O@Zn_{1.8}Cr LDH sample exhibited the highest yields of CO and H₂, but the selectivity toward CO generation was only 62.3%. The 0.2Cu₂O@Zn_{1.6}Cr LDH displayed the highest selectivity of 82.3%, but the yield of CO (4.1 μmol) was inferior to that of the 0.1Cu₂O@Zn_{1.8}Cr LDH. The 0.4Cu₂O@Zn_{1.2}Cr LDH, which has the highest Cu₂O content, showed the lowest yields of both CO (2.3 μmol) and H₂ (0.5 μmol). This suggests that excess Cu₂O loading may reduce the synergism between LDHs and Cu₂O because of the formation of large particles and the poor dispersion of Cu₂O in the LDH frameworks. In addition, a large quantity of Cu₂O particles can mask the LDH surface, reducing the photoexcitation of the LDHs and suppressing the photocatalytic efficiency [40].

The effect of additives on the photocatalytic activity of the 0.1Cu₂O@Zn_{1.8}Cr LDH was also studied. As shown in Fig. 9, the addition of Na₂SO₃ severely suppressed the formation of CO but increased the generation of H₂, which increased to 41.2 μmol after 24-h irradiation, 11.8 times higher than the case without any additive. The addition of Na₂CO₃ also suppressed the generation of CO. SO₃²⁻ is an ideal hole scavenger and promotes the water splitting reaction. The reason for the decreased CO generation is probably that CO₃²⁻ and SO₃²⁻ occupied the CO₂ adsorption sites and then inhibited the adsorption and reduction reactions on the surface of the photocatalyst. The addition of NaCl weakened both the CO₂ reduction and water splitting reactions slightly but improved the selectivity toward CO generation. Notably, using a CO₂ UFB solution instead of water can improve both the CO production and the selectivity, indicating that the increase in CO₂ solubility significantly increases the photocatalytic activity for CO₂ reduction.

The chemical stability of Cu₂O-loaded LDH was investigated. During the photocatalytic reaction, it was observed the photocatalyst turned black gradually. The redox potential of CuO/Cu₂O is +0.193 V (vs. SHE, pH = 7), within the region between the valence band (VB) top and conduction band (CB) bottom of Cu₂O [41]. This is possibly

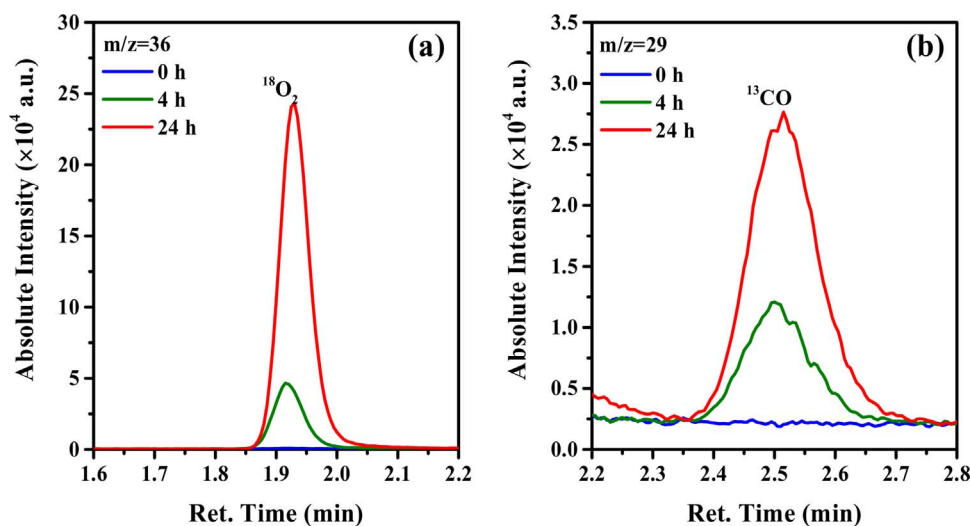


Fig. 6. Mass chromatography spectra of (a) $^{18}\text{O}_2$ ($m/z = 36$) and (b) ^{13}CO ($m/z = 29$) generated on $0.1\text{Cu}_2\text{O}@/\text{Zn}_{1.8}\text{Cr}$ LDH impregnated with H_2^{18}O under $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ atmosphere.

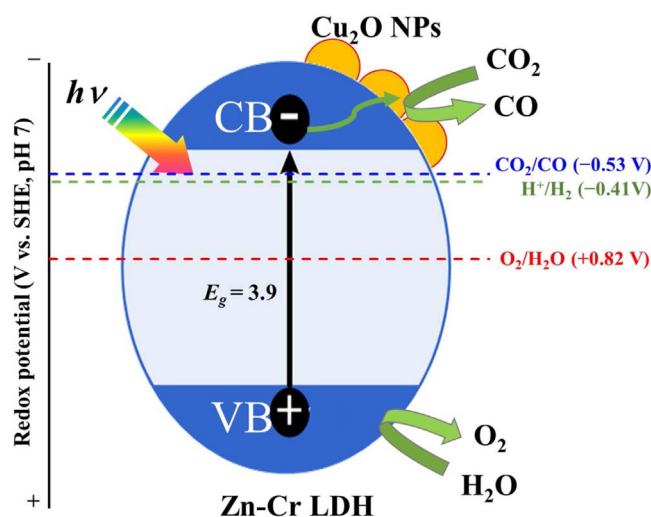


Fig. 7. Estimated electron transfer mode from Zn-Cr LDH to Cu_2O .

because part of the Cu^{I} was self-oxidized to Cu^{II} under UV irradiation, forming mixed-valence Cu_xO species, which might be the active species, resulting in enhanced photocatalytic activity [42]. Gunjaker et al. [43] suggested a charge transfer mode from Zn-Cr LDH to other semiconductors such as layered titanate. Zn-Cr LDHs can be regarded as

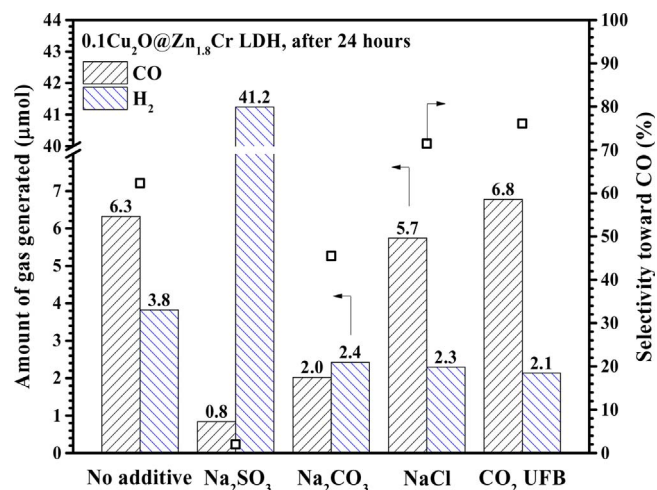


Fig. 9. Effect of additives on the CO and H_2 output in the CO_2 photoreduction reaction using $0.1\text{Cu}_2\text{O}@/\text{Zn}_{1.8}\text{Cr}$ LDH as the photocatalyst.

wide band semiconductor-like species, whose CB bottom and interstate bands are sufficiently negative to afford electron transfer to the CB of layered titanate. In contrast, Cu_2O has a quite negative CB, which is unlikely able to accept the photogenerated electrons from the Zn-Cr LDHs. However, the self-oxidation of Cu^{I} under UV irradiation resulted

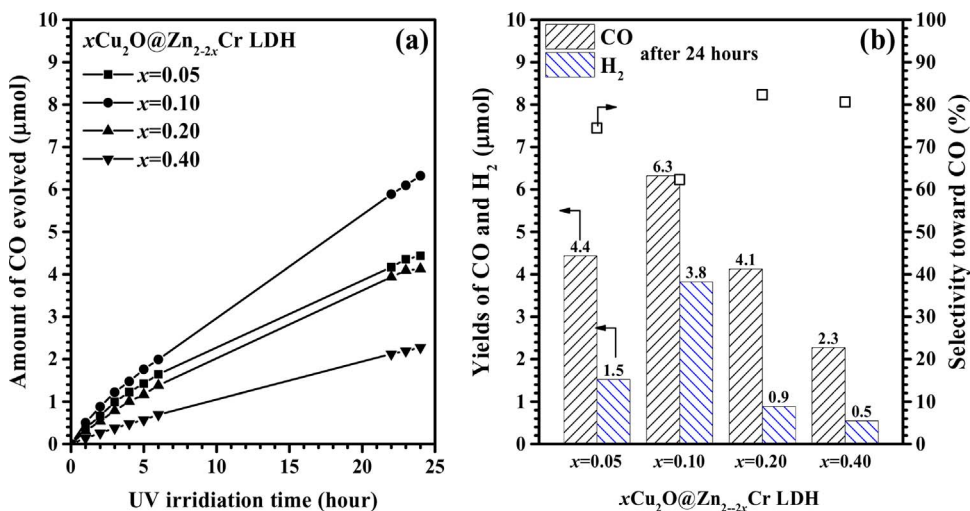


Fig. 8. (a) Time course of CO evolution and (b) the total amount generated after 24 h from the water dispersion of $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}@/\text{Zn-Cr}$ LDHs with different Cu content under CO_2 atmosphere.

in the Fermi level shifting in the positive direction and the formation of unoccupied Cu 3d orbitals below the CB of Cu₂O. These changes probably allow the electron transfer from the CB of Zn-Cr LDHs to the unoccupied Cu 3d orbitals of the surface-loaded Cu₂O nanoparticles, which are also highly active reaction sites for CO evolution from CO₂ in aqueous solution. The XRD patterns of the representative planes in 0.1Cu₂O@Zn_{1.8}Cr LDH before and after the CO₂ photoreduction reaction are also recorded for the further analysis of its chemical stability. Fig. S3(a) shows LDH phase are well preserved, and its crystallinity has not been changed. However, as shown in Fig. S3(b), the diffraction peaks of both Cu₂O and Cu existed after the reaction, indicating part of Cu₂O was self-reduced by photoelectrons. It does not imply that the photocatalyst will be out of activity, because Cu can also serve as a reaction site for CO₂ photoreduction [44–46]. Fig. S4 shows the average formation rate of CO on Cu₂O-loaded Zn-Cr LDHs at different time in CO₂ photoreduction reaction in pure water. In the initial stage, the formation rate of CO decreased along with the gradual reduction of Cu^I to Cu⁰, attesting the fact Cu₂O is more effective than Cu, which is consistent with the previous report [47]. The change between Cu^I and Cu⁰ was reversible and probably close to equilibrium after 4 h when the formation rate of CO turned into stable.

4. Conclusions

The incorporation of copper oxides with LDHs is considered an effective approach to improve the activity of photocatalysts for the reduction of CO₂. In this work, a series of Cu₂O-decorated Zn-Cr LDHs (xCu₂O@Zn_{2-2x}Cr LDH) were prepared via an *in situ* reduction process from the corresponding Cu-Zn-Cr ternary LDH with the same Cu content (Cu_{2x}Zn_{2-2x}Cr LDH). The formation of Cu₂O nanoparticles and preservation of the LDH structure was confirmed. The 0.1Cu₂O@Zn-Cr LDH exhibited the best activity among the loaded LDHs, and the activity was superior to the corresponding Cu-Zn-Cr ternary LDH and pristine Zn₂Cr LDHs. The loaded Cu₂O nanoparticles probably function as effective electron traps, promoting charge separation and providing active sites for CO₂ reduction. This study provides a simple and efficient approach for the fabrication of high-performance LDH-based artificial photosynthesis systems.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2017.11.011>.

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